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SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

Edited by WILLIAM C. BAGLEY

VOLUME 57 SATURDAY, JANUARY 16, 1943 NUMBER 1464

SCIENTISTS AT SIXTEEN

By
BRUCE BLIVEN
EDITOR, *The New Republic*

PROJECT No. 1. A new type of bomb has been suggested in which oxygen and acetylene would be combined at a point of combustion. Such a bomb would reach a heat of 6,000 degrees or more and could not be extinguished with sand or anything similar. It would burn its way through granite, concrete, or steel. *An American scientist is working on this.*

PROJECT No. 2. It has been suggested that a speedboat without passengers, controlled by radio, should be used to get close to an enemy vessel and explode a torpedo against its side. This would prevent the heavy loss of life that may be incurred from the use of similar boats with military personnel on board. *An American scientist is working on this.*

PROJECT No. 3. It has been suggested that rockets should be used in artillery bombardment. A rocket powered by a combination of liquid hydrogen and liquid oxygen should have a very long range and strike at high speed. The rocket's fuel tanks would shatter on contact, creating an explosive mixture. *An American scientist is working on this.*

PROJECT No. 4. It has been suggested that a large bomber airplane should carry a small fighter plane to be launched in mid-air when enemy craft approached. Such launching of one plane from another has already been successfully accomplished under peacetime conditions, the purpose being to get the small plane into the air for a long trip with a heavy load of gasoline. *An American scientist is working on this.*

I ought to add that the scientists who are engaged on these four projects, and on hundreds of others of similar character, are students in American high schools. These particular inventions may or may not come to anything; but they are significant as fruits of a new and important American policy—the policy of seeking to develop the scientific abilities of great numbers of young people of both sexes.

At this moment, and in relation to the war effort, we could probably use at least three times as many physicists as we possess, and twice as many chemists. Nearly every other branch of science is also shorthanded in this total war. And in the post-war period it will be of the highest importance that we have tremendous numbers of citizens familiar with the scientific discipline and its material fruits. This is true not only because ours is increasingly a world of technology, calling for ever-larger numbers of experts, but because one of the things wrong in our civilization is the degree to which we think unscientifically, letting emotion be a substitute for reason, accepting ideas that are without solid foundation, permitting ourselves to be ruled by catchwords, many of which are false. If enough people can learn to think as the scientist does, to examine evidence critically, and to insist on truth at all costs,

we shall have a solid basis for a better civilization.

In the formal effort to encourage scientific interest among young people—an effort that is solidly successful—there are at present two chief devices in the United States, the Science Clubs of America and the Annual Science Talent Search.

The Science Clubs are for the most part in the high schools, though there are some in colleges, in grammar schools, or in special institutions. There are now about 2,200 clubs with 60,000 members, which represents a trebling of the membership in one year. The average club has 27 members, two thirds of whom are boys.

It is safe to say that any average individual among these 60,000 young Americans knows far more about science than does the average well-educated adult who has never had the advantage of a Science Club membership. Nearly all these boys and girls have their own special interests—aeronautics or microscopy, chemistry, genetics, or what not; but they also are learning the fundamentals of every other branch of science as well. The order in which they turn from one branch of science to another is based upon the order in which the schools teach these subjects. Most schools begin with biology and then go on to chemistry and physics. If a youngster of either sex continues a keen interest in biology over several years, experience has shown that he or she is likely to become a doctor or nurse, while one who becomes enamoured of physics is likely to turn out a mechanical or electrical engineer.

A science club usually starts in any school because one of the science teachers, or perhaps a science-minded student, gets the idea. In many institutions, meetings are held in the school laboratory and quite often this is done during the working school day. The clubs are now being fostered and encouraged by Science Service, a non-profit organization founded by the late E. W. Scripps, the newspaper magnate, in order to develop knowledge and appreciation of science among his fellow citizens. Science Service, at a substantial cost to itself, gets a club under way and helps to keep it going and in contact with other clubs all over the country.[1] There are no dues or fees of any kind.

There are science clubs in secondary schools in other countries but nowhere else, so far as I can learn, are they nationally organized (except in Canada, whose clubs are affiliated with those in this country). This fact of national organization is important. Clubs exchange information, help each other on projects, hold regional and national fairs. Being part of a big organization probably at least doubles and perhaps trebles the value of the clubs.

What do the clubs do? I have on my desk a list of more than 1,000 individual projects, each of which can be pursued from half a dozen different angles, so that the activities become almost endless. At present, helping in the war is their main interest. Some of their activities, listed at random, are as follows:

Building airplane models for the U. S. Army and Navy.

Building aviation wind tunnels and testing experimental model airplanes.

Building telescopes, microscopes, spectroscopes, and special cameras to be used in conjunction with these instruments.

Making an inventory of the physical resources of a state.

Shatterproofing all the windows of a school.

Aiding the U. S. Forestry Service after special forestry training.

Introducing tuberculin testing in a community heretofore lacking it.

Spreading knowledge of science in the community through exhibits, lectures, movies, and conferences.

One of the earliest things a club usually does is to study the scientific aspects of the life of its own city. It learns at first hand,

[1] For information, address Science Clubs of America, 1719 N Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.

by field work, how water is kept pure, how to fight fires, how garbage is disposed of, how rats are killed. Groups go through the telephone exchange, a bakery, an ice plant, a broadcasting studio, a police station, a hospital. Local scientists are asked to come and lecture to the club. The members keep up with new developments in science; a common device is to call the roll at a meeting and require every member to respond by contributing some recent bit of interesting information. New science books are bought, reviewed in the school newspaper or on the bulletin board, and put into a special circulating library. A permanent science exhibit is kept going in the school in the endeavor to attract the interest of other students.

Among the most important activities of the science clubs are the fairs and congresses, local, regional, or national (although the ones involving a good deal of travel are now suspended for the period of the war). At the fairs, all sorts of scientific exhibits are displayed and explained by the young scientists who built the models and carried on the preliminary experimentation. At these science fairs you may see such things as the 12-inch telescope built by a science club. One group will have an exhibit and demonstration, on a safely reduced scale, of modern explosives. Another will give a complete showing of the uses of the soy bean, from food to fenders. In the next booth you may find models of the process of erosion, and in the one beyond, work done with the Forest Service, including tree planting, disease eradication, and experiments in new uses of woods. Aviation being the ruling passion of young scientists of the male sex just now, the fairs are full of model airplanes, wind tunnels, and devices to demonstrate air flow around streamlined and unstreamlined objects. Hydroponics, the art of soilless agriculture, is likely to be demonstrated with growing vegetables which have their roots in water and sand.

A science congress is like a science fair, except that in addition to exhibits, the young scientists read papers they have prepared. With a faithful imitation of their elders they describe in carefully exact language what they have done with tadpoles, rats, plastics, rabbits, chemical agriculture, or model airplanes.

Individual youngsters of course go far beyond these group enterprises. One boy has learned the art of making small animals, fish, and insects transparent, for display purposes, and his beautifully prepared specimens have been a feature of several science fairs. Another youngster won the applause of grown-up scientists by demonstrating the effects of various vitamin deficiencies on a large colony of rats. An eighteen-year-old boy showed such aptitude for advanced radio research that a year ago, before the draft age had been lowered, the Navy borrowed him for a year's experimental work and then sent him to college to prepare himself further. One boy built a high-temperature furnace capable of melting almost all the common metals. A girl did distinguished work on chicken embryology. A group of former science club members are now lieutenants in the Army, and one is a member of that fascinating group of instrument engineers at Langley Field whose highly secret and important job it is to invent new airplane devices.

One young scientist at the age of 18 did such valuable work on the protozoa that he had the unparalleled honor of reading a paper at the august annual convention of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. A couple of youngsters built a fully automatic photographic printer, embodying important new developments of their own. A small group in New York worked out a new system for radio receiving and sending, under which you can plug in a cord on a switchboard and thereby speak to any desired radio-equipped police car, without being heard elsewhere. A girl

mounts brain specimens beautifully, and is now in college studying to become a brain surgeon. One youngster built a radio transmitter and receiver so small that both could be held simultaneously on the palm of his hand—and it's a small palm.

Most of these activities are carried on with very little money. One boy with only a couple of dollars' worth of purchased material, plus odds and ends picked up here and there, built a spectroscope valued at several hundred dollars. The ingenuity used in turning discarded junk to useful purposes is almost unbelievable. A large group of big industrial firms, anxious to aid in disseminating science, send information and materials to any club free on request. One industrial company goes so far as to present to a club as a permanent gift a stereopticon-slide library showing various aspects of scientific research. For some time the genetics laboratory of the Carnegie Institution at Cold Spring Harbor, Long Island, furnished free to the clubs colonies of drosophila, the fruit fly that is so useful in the study of genetics.

Another enterprise of great importance is the Annual Science Talent Search conducted by the Science Clubs of America with the co-operation of the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company, which pays the bills. About 11,000 boys and girls in their last year in high school participated in the 1942 contest and more than twice that number in the one for 1943. It is not necessary to be a member of a science club to participate in the Science Talent Search, but most of the winning contestants come from the clubs.

The tests are uniform all over the country and are not based on scientific knowledge, but only on general intelligence plus some scientific aptitude. They are given in the student's own school, and are supervised by his own teachers; he incurs no expense whatever.

The 40 top winners from all over the country are brought to Washington, suitably chaperoned, with all expenses paid. There they attend a Science Talent Institute, addressed by prominent experts, and also do some special sightseeing in the city which is now the leading science center for the whole country. In Washington, the contestants undergo an oral examination given by three experts. The two prize winners, always a boy and a girl, get $2,400 each to help them through college. Eight others get $400 each, and there are lesser prizes totaling $3,000.

The prize-winning essays are now published in an annual book. I have read one of these volumes, and it compares favorably with any similar anthology produced by adult scientists. The four projects mentioned at the beginning of this article are the work of four winners in the 1942 contest. They are Wolf Karo, of Utica, N. Y.; Donald White, of Schenectady, N. Y.; William Calhoun, of Glendale, Cal.; and Hugo Korn, of Chicago, whose ages at the time of the contest were 18, 17, 16, and 16. Examinations for 1943 were held in December, and the final awards will be made in Washington on February 25.

It is interesting to know that the original form of this manuscript contained a slightly different list of projects from the foregoing. At the request of the U. S. War Department, one boy's proposal has now been omitted because the authorities take it so seriously that they prefer not to have any public statement made about it.

The science clubs, now in their fifteenth year, were started by the American Institute of the City of New York, a non-profit organization founded in 1828 to stimulate American industrial activity and growth through encouraging technology. It was only a few years ago that Science Service came in to help, and the spectacular growth, as recorded above, has been within the past year when the war gave such a tremendous

impetus to technology. Already there are many hundreds of former science-club members in the armed forces of the United States, and, though their work is of course confidential for the duration of the war, there is no doubt that their scientific abilities are proving of value. But the great usefulness of these clubs, and of activities like the Talent Search, is in my judgment still in the future. It will come with the creation of a far wider and deeper knowledge of science than we have ever seen, a knowledge that should be one of the foundation stones of our future civilization.

HISTORY AND THE WORLD REVOLUTION

By
MAX SAVELLE
PROFESSOR OF HISTORY,
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IT has by this time become a truism not only that we are in the midst of the greatest war that ever was, but that we are also in the midst of a great and profound social revolution—the most far-reaching that human society has ever known.

It follows from this truism that the task facing education—the only significant task facing education—is to prepare the citizens of the world not only for the successful prosecution of the war but also for the business of living in a new world after the war shall be over. Obviously, since this is a technicians' war and since the peacetime world will be a technicians' world, it is the business of the universities to train the technical specialists to do and to direct the technical work of the war and of the post-war future. And it is folly to take potential technical experts out of the universities and expect them to be better than Japanese or German experts with many years' preparation by giving them a six-to-ten-weeks' course of sprouts in an Army training center. These men—the American technical experts—must be well-trained—and being well-trained means a training of years, not weeks. Even if this be a surprisingly short war, our six-weeks-wonders will be inadequate; should the war be short, indeed, the need for technical experts after the war will be a long-time, highly exacting need, and the only men who will be able to fulfill that need will be the true, highly trained experts.

But that is only the most pressing aspect of the educational problem of preparing the citizens of the new order. There is a much more profound and far-reaching aspect of the educational problem that calls for deep and careful study. The citizen of the future must have, not, indeed, a necessarily *new* set of values, since it would be a reckless man who would maintain that the old values are worthless in the face of the new conditions, but, rather, he must have a new facility for adapting the old values to the new scene. The principle of life is growth; and any scheme of thought which seeks to impose upon the human mind *any* fixed system of ideas is foredoomed to both tragedy and failure. The function of education is not, therefore, to teach any fixed system of ideas or ideals, but, rather, to cultivate in the citizen the habit of mind most conducive to enlightened, self-directed intellectual growth. And that means adaptation. It means, in more practical terms, a critical open-mindedness to the elements in any new situation, and an habitual readiness to accept the most promising proposals for the solution of new problems.

What is the intellectual discipline most calculated to produce this end-product in the student?

History.

I

History is an extremely "practical" subject for study. It is practical for the

soldier, for the citizen, and for the statesman.

For the soldier, it is the study of history that teaches him the ideals for which he is fighting. It is history that teaches him the ideals and way of life of his own country and what the still incomplete achievement of these ideals has cost in "blood, sweat, and tears." It is history that teaches him why England, with all its errors and stumbling, must be regarded as one of the ramparts of the highest grade of civilization yet achieved by man against the flood of barbaric materialism now launched against it. It is history that will teach him that civilization is moving into the "century of the common man" all over the world, and that the future—if the fascists at home and abroad are not allowed to control it—belongs to the masses and will, therefore, be an improvement upon the past. It is history, thus, that gives the soldier an ideal for which he may lay down his life in the assurance that he does not die in vain. It is history that teaches the record upon the basis of which the present enemies of the United States must be reckoned criminals by any student, moral or legal, of international or humanistic right and justice. Similarly, it is their history that best helps the soldier to understand the virtues and the strengths of his enemies and that will qualify him, in the years of victorious peace, to administer their lands with understanding and wisdom rather than with vindictiveness and violence.

The American Army is now training a corps of officers for the task of administering occupied territories. Suppose, for example, the Americans succeed in wresting a large area of France from the Germans; as long as the area is regarded as a military area, it must be administered by military officers. If it is to be administered wisely, in such a fashion as to win and keep the loyalty of the French civilians who will thus fall under American military rule, the officers charged with its government must know the language of the people. But they must know more than that. They must know the habits, the customs, and the institutions of the regions under their charge. Furthermore, they must know the traditions, the prejudices, and the psychology of the people in the area. There is only one way to know these things, and that is by a thorough study of the history of France.

Suppose, again, that the allies succeed in conquering a large part—or all—of Germany. For many years, probably, those areas must be under military rule, both for the maintenance of order among the Germans and for the protection of the Germans from the vindictiveness of their victims. But the military rulers must be wise, not vindictive or ruthless. For vindictiveness and ruthlessness can only sow the seeds of hate—and more war. They must be understanding, skilled in the knowledge of the economics, the politics, and the culture of the Germans. History is the only discipline that can teach this skill, since it is the only discipline that teaches all these phenomena in *their relationship to each other.*

II

For the citizen, the uses of history are many and significant. To begin with, the study of history in its broadest sense should aid the future citizen in choosing his career. For by a study of the pursuits, the institutions, and the ideas of the men who have built civilization, he gets an unrivaled introduction to what the possibilities are. The political history of civilization teaches him not only the problems, the practices, and the institutions of politics in their evolution, but also the ideas men have had about government and, to that degree, introduces him to the *nature* of political man and to the problems of political science. Similarly, the study of economic history

not only teaches him the record of the many economic systems that have been tried, but also introduces him to the economic philosophies that accompanied them and to the nature of the problem of economics. Similarly, the study of history introduces him to the basic problems in the struggle of the human animal to know God. It introduces him to the problems of philosophy, of engineering, and of science, in their proper relationships to the general problem of the advancing human civilization. So, by reason of his historical introduction to these threads in the tapestry of human culture in their relationships to one another, the future citizen is enabled more intelligently to decide which one of them he will follow in his own personal life-work.

Further, history is the jewel-casket in which is contained the citizen's cultural heritage. The study of history would be justified if only by the enrichment of his life derived from the enjoyment of his heritage, or by the inspirational value to be derived from the study of the lives of the great men who, as individuals, carried the banner of civilization forward.

But, more than that, the study of history should cultivate in the citizen certain qualities without which a democracy cannot possibly succeed. For history should teach him that no idea, no institution, no habit or custom, can withstand the corroding effect of time. Nothing in human civilization is eternal. The only constant in human history is change. This being the case, and the citizen having got it into his head by the study of history (and it is difficult to see how he could get it there otherwise), it is reasonable to suppose that he will find himself more receptive to suggestions for beneficial change than he otherwise might have been.

It does not follow, of course, that he will accept every change that is proposed, every new intellectual "gadget," merely because it is new. On the contrary, after he has seen the thousands of worthless ideas that have been tried and that have failed in the management of human affairs, presumably he will be inclined to develop a healthy, critical skepticism toward everything that is proposed, and, as a result, he will become conservative rather than radical. Surely he will be less susceptible to the wiles of propaganda.

Thus for the citizen the study of history provides an enrichment of life, the inspiration of noble example, an understanding of the breadth of choice open to him in the choosing of a career, and, most important of all, the habit of intelligent, critical tolerance without which a democracy cannot hope to function. It is not without reason that educators are demanding that history be a required subject in our schools.

III

For the statesman, above all, history is a necessary discipline. For the statesman is by definition a leader of men, and he must understand them. The profundity of the wisdom of Washington's Farewell Address to the nation is to be seen, not so much in the specific recommendations to be found in it, as in the fact that it rang so true to the deep genius of the nation at the time of expression, that it rested so solidly upon the experience of the Americans in two centuries of their history. Washington knew his people because he knew their history. And he knew what their best and wisest relationship to the rest of the world should be because he knew the history of the rest of the western world.

Times have changed since then; and it is safe to say that Washington would today make other recommendations to his people because, in the meantime, the intervening history, both at home and abroad, has changed their outlook upon the world and their proper relationship to it.

The statesman of today is called upon, as never before, to know the history, not only of his own people, but of the other peoples of the world as well. For the statesman of the future this knowledge will be even more important than now. For never before in the experience of the race has it been so incumbent upon the leaders of civilization to *understand* the people with whom they must deal. And it is difficult to find any intellectual discipline so well calculated to meet this need.

History is the study of man. It is a laboratory in which we watch the behavior of this animal from the beginning of time. With this exception, however, that, whereas the scientist sits *outside* his glass case of flies or termites and observes them as an alien to their life, the student of history is a part of the phenomena he observes. He must live over the experience of the race in order to know it; but, knowing it thus, he should understand his subject far more completely and profoundly than the biologist may ever hope to understand his flies. The historian is not a specialist in political science, or in economics, or in the physical sciences, or in religion, though he must know enough of all these to understand them. He is, rather, a dealer in relationships, or, better still, he is a specialist in the whole man, and the whole of man's civilization. His specialty is *perspective;* his objective is *understanding,* in its broadest sense.

Civilization stands today at one of the great crossroads of time. And tomorrow it must move out on one of the roads that lie before it. Whether we proceed upon a road that leads uphill or upon one leading downward will depend in large measure upon the breadth of vision of the citizens and the statesmen of the next few years and decades. In the educational processes provided by our schools and universities the only discipline specifically devised to provide just this understanding and just this breadth of vision is history.

SHOULD THE STUDY OF AMERICAN HISTORY IN COLLEGE BE MADE COMPULSORY?

By
CLARENCE P. McCLELLAND
PRESIDENT, MACMURRAY COLLEGE, JACKSONVILLE, ILLINOIS

EARLY last summer *The New York Times* made a nation-wide survey of the teaching of American history in our colleges and universities. On June 21, the findings of this survey were published. Returns were received from 690 institutions, or 56 per cent of the total; 587,554 students—men and women—were represented by the returns.

The survey showed: (1) Only 30 per cent of our undergraduate students in college are enrolled in all history courses; 9 per cent in United States history courses; (2) 72 per cent of the colleges and universities do not require United States history for admission; (3) 82 per cent do not require the study of United States history for the undergraduate degree; (4) 69 per cent held that it should now be made a required subject for all undergraduate students.

Many newspapers commented on the significance of the survey. The *Chicago Tribune*[1] thought the "Ignorance of America," which the facts revealed, was appalling. The *St. Louis Post-Dispatch*,[2] declared, "Something is Radically Wrong Here." Even *The New York Times*[3] under the caption, "Slighting the Study of United States History," declared:

> This condition would be undesirable at any time, but today, when our democratic heritage is threatened, the need for a clearer understanding of the

[1] June 25, 1942.
[2] June 28, 1942.
[3] June 21, 1942.

American way of life becomes even more acute. Particularly distressing is the fact that a majority of students go through four years of college . . . without having taken even one course in American history. . . . To make American history a required course for mature students of college age does not appear to be an undue imposition.

In the present crisis, of course, it is essential that we develop men and women who are devoted to democratic ideals. All support should be given unhesitatingly to every effort to increase the patriotism of our undergraduates, and, since American history, if properly taught, tends to enhance appreciation of our democratic heritage, everything should be done to encourage students to elect it. However, if I must stand up and be counted on the issue raised by the *Times* survey, I shall be found among the minority of college administrators, for I do not think it is wise to make American history a required course for mature students of college age.

The impulse to seek desirable social or patriotic ends by compulsion is a natural one, but it should be resisted. When followed, the effort is usually futile and the results often disastrous. We are familiar with the debasement of education in totalitarian countries through regimentation. Perhaps there is no pressing danger of that here, but there is something about a required course that tends to cause resentment and dampen enthusiasm for the subject. It is a good principle in higher education that students should be allowed to make their own choice of studies.

It is easy enough to say, "Require students to take at least one course in United States history." But what kind of a course? Shall it be a factual course? "No," says the protagonist of required American history courses, "certainly not just facts, but rather, as Charles Warren, president of the Harvard Alumni Association, said recently, history so taught 'as to lay more emphasis on its principles of liberty, its democratic traditions and on the flaming words and heroic efforts of its leaders.' "[4] But surely these are very general terms. "Well, perhaps it would be better, after all, to give the students facts. They can stand the truth. Teach our history objectively." One wonders, however, whether it is generally understood that, if indoctrination is what is wanted, this is not the method to use.

To teach students *all* the facts about the War of 1812, *all* the facts about the Mexican War and the annexation of Mexican territory, which resembles at least in a general way Japan's annexation of Manchuria, all the facts about the Grant and Harding administrations: well, this method might produce patriots, but probably not the sort desired by the advocates of required courses. It is the opposite of the method of the propagandist.

Mr. Warren speaks about the "flaming words and heroic efforts of our leaders." But this is not history as it is taught at the college level. What does the modern historian have to do with our leaders? He has to weigh the evidence regarding them, looking back of their "flaming words and heroic efforts." By common consent, Theodore Roosevelt was regarded by the majority of his fellow countrymen as one of our greatest presidents. Again and again he was compared to Abraham Lincoln. But we cannot properly ignore what Horace D. Taft, brother of President William Howard Taft, has to say about Theodore Roosevelt in his autobiography entitled "Memories and Opinions." In his estimate of Theodore Roosevelt, Mr. Taft begins by agreeing with John Jay Chapman that Roosevelt became "the most vital, most interesting, and most important figure of his generation."

Mr. Taft then goes on to list Roosevelt's accomplishments which, as he says, were in proportion to his gifts. But, he continues, "It is when we turn to more funda-

[4] *The New York Times*, June 21, 1942.

mental qualities that the difficulties appear. . . . No man in our history has had so many conflicts on mere veracity as Theodore Roosevelt." Mr. Taft cites several proofs of Roosevelt's mendacity, and concludes this part of his chapter on Roosevelt by saying: "The list of proven falsehoods could be made much larger."[5]

These quotations from Mr. Taft are made, not to reflect upon the character of Theodore Roosevelt, but merely to illustrate what the objective study of history involves. In wartime some might consider it wise to gloss over the facts which are uncomplimentary to the character and leadership of Theodore Roosevelt, putting the main emphasis upon his "flaming words and heroic efforts," but, in this land of the free, no reputable professor of history would do it.

There are so many illustrations of what historical objectivity involves! Suppose a professor of history were dealing with the 1930's. He would doubtless focus attention upon two remarkable events: the great depression beginning in 1929 and prolonged through most of the following decade, and the beginning of World War II. What would he say about the prolonged depression of the '30's? He would point out, to use the words of Gardiner C. Means, "the clearly evident discrepancy between economic potentials and economic performance." He would make clear that this period saw the ". . . intensification of conditions making ineffective the system of economic policies known as laissez faire. It saw the increasing disillusionment with that system, the pragmatic adoption of policies antithetical to it, and the breakup of laissez faire as an operating institution" and that the "war economy continues the departure from laissez faire and makes any return to that system less likely."[6] I know some men who would not want college professors to talk like that to their students, and yet I suppose at least some of them would be strong for requiring college students to take American history.

But, some may say, "You are now in the field of economics, and the suggestion is not that economics be required." To which I answer, economic questions cannot be avoided in a study of history, and, furthermore, who will say that history in wartime is more important than economics and if economics is so important, why should it not also be required of college students?

The charge has frequently been made that Americans are provincial-minded. What better evidence of this than the chronicle of the isolationist movement in America which continued right up to Pearl Harbor and which, even more than pacifism, was responsible for our shameful unpreparedness. Of course, isolationism is not new in this country. From the beginning, it has characterized our attitude toward the rest of the world. Its classic expression is found in Washington's *Farewell Address;* its culmination in our refusal to join the League of Nations and our inability to see the need for rearmament during the long armistice of 1918–1939.

Now, it is very doubtful whether required courses in American history would have cured us of isolationism. Henry Cabot Lodge knew American history as did few men of his time. He had written books on American history, and yet he became the arch isolationist, not only of the 1920's, but of all time. Let us not be too sanguine as to the effectiveness of college courses required, or otherwise, in curing mental or spiritual ills. It is really not the purpose of college courses to effect this or that change in students, but rather to bring students face to face with truth, believing that truth, if anything, will accomplish what is needed.

[5] Horace D. Taft, "Memories and Opinions," pp. 128, 130, 132.

[6] *American Journal of Sociology*, May, 1942, p. 941.

As an illustration of how teaching often falls like seed upon stony or weedy ground, I cite a statement I heard Professor Paul H. Douglas make several years ago. I cannot quote his exact words, but he said in substance that while practically all the economists of Harvard and Yale for two generations, notably Sumner, Dunbar, Taussig, and Hadley, had believed in free trade and had set forth the values of it, yet 90 per cent of their students had stood like a rock through their mature years for a high protective tariff. Unless American history is taught as propaganda, it probably will not bring the results desired by those who wish to make it compulsory.

What college students need above all is a world view. They should understand the causes and effects of World War I and the background and issues of World War II which no course in American history could be expected to give them.

About a month ago the *Chicago Sun* asked several prominent mid-western educators the following question: "What permanent effect will the war have on college and university student life and curricula?"[7] President Herman B. Wells, of Indiana University, in his reply, said: "The postwar education will have to be designed to equip men and women to work and live in a world rather than a national economy." President Arthur C. Willard, of the University of Illinois, said: "There is no way in which we can change our national destiny as central in world affairs unless we lose this war. The fulfillment of that destiny will demand all of our abilities and material resources." From now on, our object in higher education most certainly will be to develop citizens of the world.

Of course, this is not a discussion of how American history should be taught in colleges, but rather whether it should be required; and the point here is that, considering the fact that students have in most cases studied American history each year in the elementary school and for one year in the secondary or high school, it must be assumed that they know at least in outline the main events of our national history and the democratic ideals set forth by our leading statesmen in the past and embodied in the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and subsequent significant documents and customs of our people. Perhaps they should give additional study to American history in college. It would undoubtedly do them good. But, on the other hand, their particular need may be for European or world history or perhaps for economics or sociology or some other branch of the social sciences.

And, of course, colleges should never lose sight of the fundamental purpose of higher education; namely, to develop free men and women who have learned to think straight and speak the truth. The broader the understanding, the freer they will be and the more competent to make a valuable contribution to the solution of present day problems, even war problems.

No reasonable person would oppose a re-emphasis upon the study of American history in college. There could be no objection to increasing the number of courses in American history which might be offered, and the question regarding American history or world history is not a question of either-or. Both are important; both should be emphasized, but neither should be made compulsory.

It would be very desirable to make our American history courses more interesting and vital, so that larger numbers of students would enter them voluntarily. That this can be done is shown by the new course which is being given at Barnard College by Professor Eugene Hugh Byrne; he calls it a course in "De-Isolationized U. S. History: World History from the American

[7] The *Chicago Sun*, September 27, 1942.

Standpoint—1500–1942." "Let U. S. colleges," says Professor Byrne, "stop teaching American history in a vacuum."[8] He describes his new course as "an exercise in historical imagination."

Compulsory courses in United States history are not necessary in order to make our students better citizens or more adequately prepared to participate in the war effort. In spite of the results of *The New York Times* survey, I do not hesitate to say that our college students have a much wider vision and a much more intelligent grasp of the essentials of American history and of democratic ideals than their fathers and mothers. In addition, they are developing a global consciousness and a sense of the relationship which exists between their country and the other nations of the world. Their viewpoint and their desires for the future are not very different from those expressed in Wendell Willkie's radio address on October 25, 1942. Their assent to what he said would be almost unanimous.

Events . . .

EXCHANGE FELLOWSHIPS FOR UNITED STATES STUDENTS OUT "FOR THE DURATION"

A RELEASE from the Department of State under date of December 29, 1942, gives the following information:

The Department of State announces that notes have been addressed by the department to the diplomatic missions of the other American republics in Washington, informing them that the increasingly exigent demands of the war upon the manpower supply in the United States make it necessary for this government to suspend, for the duration of the war, the award of official scholarships, fellowships, and travel or maintenance grants to students from the United States.

In transmitting this information to the diplomatic missions of the other American republics, the Secretary of State has informed them that the Government of the United States believes, as they are aware, that all the country's energies in human, material, and spiritual resources must be directed solely toward the winning of the war. . . .

The Secretary of State has also emphasized that, in adopting this policy, the Government of the United States has no intention or thought of suspending or discontinuing the award of fellowships and travel and maintenance grants to citizens of the other American republics for study in the United States. On the contrary, he has expressed the hope that the situation in other American countries will permit the continuance of this program and that panels under the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations will be submitted by other participating countries in accordance with the standing procedure. He has added that the Department of State and other agencies in this government will request funds for the 1944 fiscal year to continue this treaty arrangement, the award of travel and maintenance grants, and similar activities. . . .

The Secretary of State recognizes in his communication to the diplomatic missions of the other American republics that it is undoubtedly desirable, for the future of inter-American and international relations, to build up as large a group as possible of well-trained people who are skilled in special techniques and speak the language of other American countries. He points out that, so far as the United States is concerned, many persons with special training are at present receiving experience in the other American republics through the Auxiliary Foreign Service and the foreign activities of the emergency economic and supplies agencies. It is the view of the department that these persons will undoubtedly make an important contribution to inter-American understanding in their body of well-informed persons in many technical and professional fields.

TRENDS AND PROBLEMS IN STATE SCHOOL FINANCE

THE *Research Bulletin* of the NEA on "State School Finance Systems," published in November, contains a section on trends and problems in this field, which is introduced by the exhortation to "the friends of education" to become acquainted with each state's fiscal laws dealing with public education; to promote "legislation designed to strengthen state financial procedures; and to oppose . . . measures that will

[8] *Times*, November 2, 1942, p. 71.

endanger unnecessarily the effectiveness and the freedom of action which the states now possess."

The trends of the past ten years, according to the report, are:

(1) The increasing number of states carrying "a larger share of the cost of education," a policy favored by educators and "accelerated by the break down of local fiscal machinery during the depression years." (2) Decline in the practice of earmarking taxes for support of the public schools and an increase, on the other hand, of appropriations "from state general funds," a better practice than the earmarking of funds, which "often resulted in inequities." (3) Abandonment of the former "school census, pupil enrollment, and pupil attendance" as a basis for "distributing general aid in support of a uniform state-wide foundation program." This general aid, however, according to reports from 18 states, is giving way to the "equalization" principle, by which all school districts may be helped "in proportion to their needs." (4) The gradual incorporation of "special aid for one or more school purposes," which often operated for the benefit of the rich districts at the expense of the poorer, into the "comprehensive school programs for which general and equalization aid are provided."

The bulletin calls attention to certain problems related to these trends:

(1) The reorganization of local school administrative units.

(2) The amicable adjustment of federal and state fiscal policies and programs.

(3) The determination of the federal government's role in the support of education.

(4) The fiscal problems of the schools involving investigation of local financial practices.

(5) The necessity of postwar planning.

THE NEGRO'S EDUCATIONAL ADVANTAGES UNDER SCRUTINY

A RECENT copy of *The Southern Frontier* contains an article on the higher education of Negroes, by C. H. Bynum, that shows how pitifully small and inadequate are the educational facilities provided for our largest minority group. Seventeen states maintain 29 colleges for Negroes, ten of which are "approved" on the basis of the segregation of the races. Three states—Kansas, Ohio, and Pennsylvania —partially support Negro colleges, and on the higher educational level do not make race segregation mandatory.

Seven states—Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Georgia, Mississippi, Oklahoma, and Tennessee —make no provision for accredited Negro colleges, and four states—Mississippi, Georgia, South Carolina, and Arkansas—although they have "the largest percentages of Negro population" rank lowest in their per-capita appropriations for Negro colleges.

Delaware, Georgia, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina, having about one third of the total Negro population of the United States and, therefore, the most compelling reason for providing professional training, provide none at all.

The State of North Carolina supports five Negro colleges, two of which are "approved" and offer graduate work.

Virginia has one Negro state college and plans are afoot to make it an "approved" university by 1955.

Texas is aroused to the importance of Negro education and is making a study of the subject "with full equalization as the ultimate goal."

Out-of-state scholarships are available for Negroes in Maryland, and Negroes have been admitted to the state university. Maryland has also established in recent years Morgan State College for Negroes, making three such institutions in the state. But in Arkansas, Delaware, Mississippi, and Oklahoma, Negro high-school students have no first-class college in the state to which they may go.

TEACHER-EDUCATION CONFERENCE AT UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

ON December 4, 1942, 125 college teachers, university professors, deans, and presidents, representing the states of Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, North Dakota, and South Dakota, together with "some superintendents of schools and representatives from the several state departments of education," met at the University of Minnesota for its Thirteenth Teacher Education Conference.

Leaders of the various groups discussing subjects concerned with higher education, teacher-education, the present emergency, and postwar rehabilitation were: John Darley, of the University of Minnesota; Russell Cooper, of Grin-

nel, Iowa; Edgar G. Doudna, secretary, Board of Regents of Normal Schools, Wisconsin; Floyd Adams, of the Minnesota State Department of Education; C. P. Archer, director of the university's Bureau of Recommendations; W. C. Coffey, president of the university; and T. R. McConnell, dean of the university's College of Science. W. E. Peik, dean, College of Education, presided.

The current trend toward admitting high-school juniors to college was threshed out and a resolution was passed "endorsing the program on a limited and co-operative basis," action in the matter being left to the discretion of high-school officials.

The conference also recommended

> . . . the appointment of advisory committees on teacher education in the several states to represent all types of institutions for co-operation with state departments of education in recommending limited emergency certification, to promote needed legislation, to secure funds for teacher-education scholarships, and to help set up state-wide in-service education centers.

The consolidation of small local units, increase in teachers' salaries, and emphasis upon the primary importance of schools, both now and after the close of the war, were urged as measures to curtail the teacher shortage.

The Minnesota conference, held every year, is on a democratic and informal basis. Topics are proposed by representatives of the various states and later are checked by them in the order of preference, so that the round-table discussions are those most desired by the participants. The conference has grown to its present proportions from an original attendance of 20 or 30 delegates.

ADJUSTING CALIFORNIA JUNIOR COLLEGES TO WARTIME NEEDS

UNDER the auspices of the California Junior College Federation, a two-day conference of public-school superintendents, representatives of the universities and of the State Department of Public Instruction, and junior-college executives was held at Bakersfield in mid-December to consider the wartime problems of the colleges, with especial reference to needed legislation. The conference recommended an amendment to the state law regarding admission to junior colleges which would provide that:

> The principal of any two-year junior college shall admit thereto any high-school graduate or any other person (over 18 years of age) who in his judgment is capable of profiting from the instruction offered in the junior college.

Another resolution recommended to the legislature the following amendment:

> The governing board of any high-school district having an assessed valuation of $5,000,000 or more may, with the approval of the superintendent of public instruction and of the state board of education, establish and maintain one or more junior colleges.

According to the *Bakersfield Californian,* December 12, this amendment "would provide for the approval of the state superintendent of public instruction which the present law omits."

Regarding the much-disputed question of the admission to college of selected high-school seniors, action was taken as follows:

> Be it resolved that the California Junior College Federation expresses its hope that such policies and plans as may be adopted by high schools, junior colleges, senior colleges, and universities with reference to accelerated "selected students" insure the achievement of the high-school diploma by such students.

The conference was called by Walter F Dexter, state superintendent of public instruction, and arranged by Aubrey A. Douglass, assistant state superintendent, and John G. Howes, dean, Taft Junior College, and president of the federation.

Notes and News . . .

CORRECTION: In SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, January 2, William W. Brickman reviewed "The American Tradition" (Louis B. Wright and H. T. Swedenberg, Jr., Editors), published by F. S. Crofts and Company, New York City. Unfortunately, the price listed at the beginning of the review was erroneously stated as $2.50. The cost is only $2.00.

Appointments, Elections, Resignations, Retirements

CHESTER O. NEWLUN, whose resignation as president, Northwestern State College (Alva, Okla.), was reported in SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, December 12, 1942, was inaugurated as president, State Teachers College (Platteville, Wis.), January 5. Dr. Newlun succeeds Asa M. Royce.

ALBERT C. HINGSTON, head of the department of speech and drama, Pacific University (Forest Grove, Ore.), has been appointed dean of men to succeed Roger Folgate. Dean Folgate has resigned to accept an appointment as co-ordinator of health, public welfare, and recreation under the Federal Security Administration.

AUSTIN W. CURTIS, JR., for the past eight years assistant to the late George Washington Carver, has been appointed director of the George Washington Carver Foundation, Tuskegee Institute, Ala.

ALLAN ABBOTT, president emeritus of English, Teachers College, Columbia University, is giving a course in Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Ind.

AMONG recent changes in the staff of the Pennsylvania State College are the following: Robert K. Vierck has been appointed assistant professor of engineering; Charles L. Taylor, instructor in meteorology; Matthew J. Hrebar, instructor in mining; Robert L. Hess, research assistant in ceramics; Charles F. Salzman, Jr., assistant in electrical engineering; and Sarah E. Paxton, Mabel E. Satterthwaite, and Ruth E. Stamm, home-economics extension representatives. Lucille L. Zoller, assistant professor of foreign languages at the DuBois Undergraduate Center, has been given leave of absence (January 1 to June 30) for graduate study. Resignations include those of Norbert J. Kreidl, assistant professor of glass technology, to become head of the department of inorganic chemistry and glass technology, Bausch and Lomb Optical Company, Rochester (N. Y.); Gerard A. Rohlich, assistant professor of sanitary engineering, for work in a government post; W. K. Ulerich, assistant professor of journalism on a part-time basis, for service in the Army; and Mary J. McKain, home-economics representative.

FREDERICK COYKENDALL was recently re-elected chairman of the Board of Trustees, Columbia University. Mr. Coykendall, who is the 19th incumbent of the chairmanship since the university was founded in 1754 as King's College by grant of George II of England, enters upon his 11th term.

CHARLES F. BAUDER, director of vocational education, Philadelphia, has been made president of a new group—the National Council of City Directors of Vocational Education, Industrial Arts, and Trade School Principals—created by the merging of the National Association of Trade School Principals and the National Council of City Directors of Vocational Education and Industrial Arts. This merger was made at the Toledo meeting of the American Vocational Association, which was reported in SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, January 9.

MORSE A. CARTWRIGHT, executive officer of the Institute of Adult Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, has been appointed consultant to the Bureau of Special Operations, Office of War Information, Washington. Dr. Cartwright is serving on a half-time basis without compensation.

THEODORE R. SHAFFLER, whose appointment as head of the department of sociology, Phillips University (Enid, Okla.), was reported in SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, October 31, 1942, has been given the additional duties of director of public relations, replacing Wilford S. Christopher, who is now in the personnel division of the Army Air Forces.

ELIZABETH A. KNOLL, director of public relations for the Baltimore Museum of Art, has succeeded Thomas Pinckney as publicity director for the College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va. Mr. Pinckney is in service in the Navy.

VAUGHN D. SEIDEL, chief deputy superintendent of schools, Alameda County (Calif.), has succeeded the late Edgar E. Muller in the superintendency. Mr. Muller's death was reported in SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, January 9. James L. Bunker, supervisor of arithmetic, attendance, and welfare for the county, succeeds Mr. Seidel as chief deputy superintendent.

Recent Deaths

Frances Jenkins, assistant professor of education, Teachers College, University of Cincinnati, died, December 25, according to word sent recently to School and Society. Professor Jenkins had served as a teacher in the elementary schools of Gloversville and Islip (N. Y.) and Montclair (N. J.), 1894–1901; critic teacher (1901–05), Northern Illinois State Teachers College (De Kalb); instructor in education (1906–08), Baltimore City Training School, and (1908–09), Howard University (Washington, D. C.); supervisor of elementary grades in the public schools of Decatur (Ill.), 1909–14; and assistant professor of education, University of Cincinnati, since 1915. Professor Jenkins was seventy years old at the time of her death.

Archibald Currie, professor of economics and political science, Davidson (N. C.) College, died, December 30, at the age of sixty-six years. Dr. Currie had been a member of the staff since 1901.

John Oscar Creager, professor emeritus of education, New York University, succumbed to a heart attack, January 5, according to a telegram received too late for the report to be included in the make-up of School and Society for January 9. Dr. Creager, who was in his seventy-first year at the time of his death, began his professional career as an instructor in mathematics (1897–98), Cheshire (Conn.) Academy. He served as instructor in modern languages (1899–1900), Westminster School for Boys (Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.); president (1901–08), Lebanon Valley College (Annville, Pa.); head of the department of English (1908–10), University High School for Boys, Cleveland; dean, College of Education, and principal, Normal School (1910–17), and director of summer sessions (1913–17), University of Wyoming; state commissioner of education, Wyoming (1917–19); president (1919–20), Northern Arizona Normal School (now Arizona State Teachers College, Flagstaff); dean, College of Education (1920–26), and director of summer sessions (1922–26), University of Arizona; professor of education (1926–27), New York University; dean, College of Education (1927–29), University of Arkansas; and professor of education, New York University, 1929 until his retirement, June, 1942.

Clinton H. Currier, associate professor emeritus of mathematics, Brown University, died, January 5, at the age of sixty-seven years. Dr. Currier had served the university since 1899: as instructor in mathematics (1899–1914), instructor in mathematics and astronomy (1914–28), associate professor of mathematics (1928–38), and assistant dean of undergraduates, 1931 until his retirement in 1938. He also taught at the Rhode Island School of Design (Providence), 1903–09.

Charles J. Chamberlain, professor emeritus of botany, the University of Chicago, died, January 5, at the age of seventy-nine years. Dr. Chamberlain had served the university from 1897 until his retirement in 1929.

George Washington Carver, well-known Negro scientist and director of the George Washington Carver Foundation, Tuskegee Institute, died, January 5, at the age of seventy-eight years. Dr. Carver, who became a member of the staff of the institute (1894), was recognized as one of the outstanding scientists in the field of agricultural research. In 1923 he was awarded the Spingarn Medal for "discoveries that changed the economic life of the South." In 1935, he was appointed collaborator in the Bureau of Plant Industry, U. S. Department of Agriculture, in the division of plant mycology and disease survey. Dr. Carver received one of the three Roosevelt Medals in 1939.

Abbott Lawrence Lowell, president emeritus, Harvard University, died, January 6, at the age of eighty-six years. Dr. Lowell, during his twenty-four years in the presidency, established the Graduate School of Business Administration and introduced the tutorial system and house plan in Harvard College. Prior to his election as president (1909), upon the retirement of the late Charles W. Eliot, Dr. Lowell had served the university as lecturer (1897–99) and professor of the science of government, 1900–09. He retired in 1933.

Mother Mary Mercedes, former president, College Misericordia (Dallas, Pa.), died, January 9.

Thomas Pollock Oakley, former professor of history, Graduate School, Fordham University, died, January 9, at the age of fifty-seven years. Dr. Oakley was retired in 1939.

Frances Ellis Sabin, former associate pro-

fessor of Latin, New York University, died, January 10, at the age of seventy-one years. Miss Sabin had served as assistant professor of Latin in charge of demonstration in Latin classes in the University of Michigan High School (1914–23); as organizer (1923) and director (until 1930) of the Service Bureau for Classical Teachers, Teachers College, Columbia University; and as associate professor of Latin and director of the Service Bureau for Classical Teachers, School of Education, New York University, 1930 until her retirement with the rank of professor emeritus, 1936.

ISABELLE BRONK, professor emeritus of French, Swarthmore (Pa.) College, died, January 10, at the age of eighty-four years. Dr. Bronk, who had taught in private schools and high schools, 1881 to 1894, served as director of the department of Romance languages (1894–97), The Misses Ely's School (New York City), and as assistant in Romance languages (1900–01), the University of Chicago, before going to Swarthmore College in the latter year as professor of French. She became professor emeritus in 1927.

EUGENE IRVING MCCORMAC, who had served the University of California for forty years as professor of history, succumbed to a heart attack, January 10, at the age of seventy years.

JOHN LINCOLN ALGER, president emeritus, Rhode Island College of Education (Providence), died, January 11, at the age of seventy-eight years. Dr. Alger's service to education had included teaching in the Providence High School (1890–92); an instructorship in mathematics, Brown University (1892–95); the superintendency of schools (1895–1900), Bennington (Vt.); and the principalships (1900–04) of the Vermont State Normal School (Johnson), (1904–08) of the Vermont Academy (Saxtons River), and (1908–21) of the Rhode Island Normal School. When the normal school became the Rhode Island College of Education in 1921, Dr. Alger was made its first president, a post that he held until his retirement, 1939.

R. G. COLLINGWOOD, professor of history, Oxford University (England), died, January 11, according to a dispatch to *The New York Times*, January 12. Dr. Collingwood, who was fifty-three years old at the time of his death, was considered an authority on "the everyday life in Britain of the Roman period."

Coming Events

RHODE ISLAND STATE COLLEGE (Kingston) will hold its mid-year commencement, January 17. Carl R. Woodward, president of the college, will be the speaker at the baccalaureate service at 11 A.M., and Arthur A. Hauck, president, University of Maine, will deliver the commencement address at 3 P.M.

Shorter Papers . . .

SIMPLICUS AND PERPLEXIDES DECIDE THAT ISOLATIONISM IS NOT DEAD

PERSONS of the Dialogue: *Simplicus; Perplexides.*

SIMPLICUS. Have you heard, Perplexides, any reactions to our recent casting of bread upon the waters?

PERPLEXIDES. O yes, several.

SIM. And so have I, a few.

PER. One delightful gentleman of the cloth fears this and fears that if we undertake to prevent the recurrence of large-scale periodic international shooting matches by saying with men and guns that the bandit nations will not be allowed to re-arm.

SIM. How does he propose to say it? With flowers? We are not using attar of roses in the Pacific.

PER. He wasn't quite definite on the point. He seemed to favor continuing the process of education. He is fearful of engendering hatred, et cetera, *ad nauseam.*

SIM. The sheriff who takes a bandit in tow doesn't hate the bandit, and the bandit's attitude, in so far as society is concerned, is not a matter of great importance.

PER. The bull's eye, Simplicus, even if it is an analogy.

SIM. A member of the genus *Pedagogus* presented his reaction in the form of protracted lamentations. They added up, to use a vul-

garism, to about the same general point of view as that of your gentleman of the cloth. But then one of the tribe proves beyond question of doubt in a recent issue of *International Conciliation* that the United States did not reject either the Treaty of Versailles or the Covenant of the League of Nations.

PER. That is really hot news, though somewhat belated. In the argot of the school boy, So what? The rest of the world seems to have the impression that we did. And the Associated Press does not have the story yet.

SIM. A practical business man says that the bandit nations can't be policed. That the attempt would itself result in war. That it would be expensive.

PER. War would hardly result if the bandit is not adequately armed. At least the conflict would not be likely to reach global proportions. And what about letting the policed pay a part of the cost? The prospective policees seem to have the resources with which to wage quite a war.

SIM. By the way, we seem to be having difficulty in christening the present war. Let's call it the Global War. That's different and accurate, as designations go.

PER. Good. I believe you have it. And names are important. They are a great convenience.

SIM. I was interested to hear a woman say recently that she has knitted in three wars. And she is still hale and hearty.

PER. Her experience counsels that a way must be found to see that the war "stays won," to use a phrase of the Chief of the Americans. How futile to win a war if it doesn't stay won.

SIM. Again, Perplexides, we are side-tracked from the pursuit of the "good life" and are at our knitting—and shooting—again.

PER. Do you think we have finally learned that his satanic majesty can't be appeased?

SIM. Will the let-'em-stew-in-their-own-juice attitude prevail again? Remember that they don't stew long until they forcefully demand attention. A policed pot may stew, but it doesn't boil so soon. A little supervised simmering may be the remedy.

PER. I am convinced that it is, but I am fearful that isolationism is not dead.

SIM. If not, its power of survival is unparalleled. We are at least not behaving like isolationists for the duration. There is no detachment in our present attitudes.

PER. You recall, Simplicus, that when we last met we reminded ourselves of Prime Minister Churchill's pronouncements during the Baldwin-Chamberlain dispensation.

SIM. Yes, I remember.

PER. I am reminded now of a statement he made in his address to the Congress of the United States on December 26, 1941, just after our unheralded baptism of fire in Pacific waters.

SIM. To what part of his address do you refer?

PER. This: "Five or six years ago it would have been easy without shedding a drop of blood for the United States and Great Britain to have insisted on the fulfillment of the disarmament clauses of the treaties, which Germany signed after the Great War. . . . The chance has passed. It is gone. Prodigious hammer strokes have been needed to bring us together again."

SIM. If true, and I think it is, that statement is fraught with tragedy unspeakable. And it is little consolation to many mothers who are seeing their youthful sons march off to brave the cannon's mouth and to hunt and be hunted on land and sea.

PER. But now it must be. There is no escape.

SIM. Surely we will not repeat our mistakes.

PER. And I am convinced, Simplicus, that we cannot wait on the slow processes of developing "understandings." Understanding through education is fine, but, as Carlyle would say, how many bloody battlefields may be between us and international "understanding," whatever that is?

SIM. Nothing is left. Nothing, but a world organization backed by a perennial threat of force to prevent certain nations from becoming the menace that they like to be.

PER. Nothing. The United Nations must, as a post-mortem, become articulate and speak a language that certain people of importance can understand—seemingly the only one which they can understand. It may not make for an immediate "understanding," but they will understand. And you can't dispose of this by characterizing it as jingoism.

SIM. Indeed not. It is sense.

PER. A columnist has characterized this as

a smart man's war. Let's have also a smart man's peace.

W. W. PARKER

STATE COLLEGE,
CAPE GIRARDEAU, MO.

WRATH INCARNATE

A BULL is loose and education *ought* to take it by the horns.

The uncontrolled hatred of everything German and Japanese is everywhere to be observed. Indeed one is hardly patriotic who himself does not revile all the works of these nations. Now we must grant that the Germans and the Japs deserve all the hatred we can muster. If our hatred could end with our enemies and upon them it would be well indeed. But it can't. What this hatred is doing to us is the thing to be feared.

One hears on every side of the rapaciousness, the egregious conceit, and the ruthlessness of Germans and the Japs. And one hears along with it of the grinding of teeth, silent though it may be, of the oppressed nations. Sigrid Undset in her "Return to the Future"[1] shows clearly the undying rage, the smouldering hate which has been engendered by many of the Germans in the hearts of the people of Norway. Read this and you cannot doubt that one day revenge will come. And are the Norwegians different from the Czechs, the French, the Poles? It is said that the best commando is one whose relatives have all been killed in bombing raids. But the Norwegians, the Czechs, the Poles forget one thing: revenge wreaked begets revenge to be wreaked. The avenger may well send the soul of the murderer to a timely and deserved death; but the soul of the avenger shrivels and dies in the act of avenging.

If this terrible weakening of the souls of the nations is to be assuaged, a new note must be sounded. We must see a new light. The first thing we must do is to grasp an old, yet ever-new principle. *We must seek what permanently works.* It may be true, as some have said, that there are no permanent truths, but it is never true that man should not seek these truths. It has been said that what is true will work and that what works is true. And in the long run what truisms both these aphorisms are. There is a moral law, broad and inclusive; its details may vary but the inevitability of its functioning can be counted upon just as can the functioning of the law of gravity.

And what is this great principle, this great moral law? It goes by many names. In philosophy we have the term *monism* which says that reality is one thing; that all else is composed of this one thing; and, it follows, all things are interrelated. In physiology we know that a scratched finger may result in the loss of the arm or, indeed, the life itself. In religion we say that all men have One Father and, therefore, are brothers. In ethics, we say it is right and fair to treat others as you hope to be treated—to temper justice with mercy. If these things be true—and they are true and have ever been—then the great moral stands out: simply this—*Hate will kill our enemies, but the virus will infect us also.* Stated positively it reads like this: *Only love abides.*

No argument is here presented for a weak, insipid, supine acceptance of whatever evils may come. On the contrary, evil is to be resisted everywhere. Injustice is not to be tolerated—even in ourselves it must be rooted out.

> This truth within thy mind rehearse,
> That in a boundless universe
> Is boundless better, boundless worse.[2]

To do this requires vigilant organization. We have now both vigilance and organization. May we keep them!

And how shall they be kept? The answer is, as always, *education.* Education must not sit supinely by to see the youth of this nation infected by this hate virus. Education must at this time and in this nation hold before youth the *great principle.* All of us, it must be taught, are some of evil and some of good. This is true of nations as well as individuals. As individuals we know the larger evils; most of us as beings are organized and vigilant against them. The same can and must apply to nations, planets, universes. It is the misfortune and the tragedy of Germany and Japan that they as people, as nations, have given rein to a leadership which is toward the "boundless worse." *But there are even now among them those who cherish the moral law.* We believe, on the other hand, that we have been and are supporting leadership to-

[1] Alfred Knopf. 1942.

[2] Tennyson in "The Two Voices."

ward a "boundless better." We cannot study the past history of our allies and of our own nation, however, without realizing that we have missed the "boundless worse" by none too wide a margin. Youth must be taught to be vigilant toward hate, greed, injustice—toward the obvious violation of the great moral law. This education must do, in this nation, or wrath becomes incarnate!

A bull is loose and education *must* take it by the horns.

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Reports . . .

EVALUATION IN THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION STUDY

The Southern Association Study in Secondary Schools and Colleges is sponsored by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and is under the direction of one of the three commissions of the association, the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research. Participating in the study are 33 secondary schools representing a variety of backgrounds from the rural and urban areas of 11 southern states.

The following quotation from the original proposal which was made by the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research to the Southern Association in December, 1936, indicates the purpose of the study: "It is the purpose of the Commission to plan and direct a co-operative study on the part of both high schools and colleges designed to develop an educational program that will more adequately meet the needs of our adolescent group."[1] The study appears to be founded upon the following assumptions: (1) education in the South needs to be and can be improved; (2) improvement involves change; (3) the projection of change should be brought about through the understanding and co-operative effort of those affected; and (4) contemplated changes should point toward the gradual evolution of an educational program which serves directly the life needs of the people in the community or area which supports it.

The study has never had a preconceived program for the participating schools. Rather each school has been encouraged to explore any type of organization or procedure which, in the judgment of those concerned, offers promise for improving the effectiveness of instruction in the school and community. Thus changes in the schools have been made only when teachers and principals, often working with parents, pupils, and the staff of the study, were sincerely convinced after careful consideration that such changes would improve their schools and communities.

Members of the staff in the study have insisted throughout that their own evaluation activities be consistent with the nature of the study. Out of their work have evolved certain concepts concerning what constitutes sound evaluation in such an educational endeavor. The nature of these concepts is discernible in the following statement which was prepared by the writer, in collaboration with other members of the staff and presented to the executive committee of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research, at a meeting held in Atlanta, Georgia, on May 2, 1942.

To evaluate an educational endeavor is to pass judgment on the worth-whileness—the goodness or badness—of the endeavor. This judgment is made, of necessity, by each person who examines the endeavor, and it is made in terms of the values held to by the particular examiner. What one labels "good" or "bad" in an educational enterprise depends not alone upon what is observed or counted but upon such factors as the observer's ideas of the nature of learning and of the purposes of education. Thus two persons examining the same educational experiment may come to entirely different conclusions concerning its worth-whileness. It is a misconception of the nature of the evaluative process to think that one person can evaluate for another. All that one can do for another is to *present data* from which evaluation may be done.

It is the responsibility, then, of those engaged in experimentation, not primarily to evaluate or

[1] *The Southern Association Quarterly*, 1: 1, February, 1937, p. 138.

pass judgment for others, but to present data from which others may themselves validly judge the work done. The data desired for judging the work of the Southern Association Study and the bases on which judgment is made will undoubtedly vary from person to person. Some will demand very complete evidence, others will pass superficial judgment on the basis of scanty and unreliable information. Still others will simply take someone else's word for it, never bothering to examine the evidence. Nevertheless, it seems a responsibility of those associated with the study to present data that will furnish an adequate basis for evaluation.

In the opinion of the staff, the nature of the Southern Association Study is such that adequate materials for evaluation would include clear statements of the purposes of the study, accurate accounts of the procedures which have been evolved in pursuit of these purposes, and evidence of the outcomes of the endeavor as it develops. Actually, if education is a process, a proceeding toward evolving goals, then a clear statement of purposes as they evolve and descriptions of procedures, accurate and complete enough to make it possible to judge their appropriateness, is all that is needed for evaluation. Outcomes are observed and counted as the work develops because they serve as one basis for judging the adequacy of purpose and the appropriateness of procedures and thus constitute an essential element in the process. However, evidence of the outcomes often serves another important function in that it gives a certain sense of security to both the experimenter and the observer; consequently, it may be considered doubly important.

The data, then, which would seem necessary for passing judgment on the Southern Association Study might be summarized as follows:

1. A clear and understandable picture of the purposes of the study, of the reasons for the study, and of the assumptions underlying it.

2. An accurate and complete record of the role that the commission, operating primarily through its staff, has played in the study and of the reasons for this role.

3. An accurate and complete record of what each school and persons within the school have done as participants in the study and of the reasons for doing these things.

4. Dependable and adequate evidence of what doing these things has meant, is meaning, and may reasonably be expected to mean to the school and community, to the pupils, patrons, and teachers of the school.

5. Dependable and adequate evidence of the influences on other schools and communities of the changes that have been and are being made in the study.[2]

One might pass judgment on much less evidence than that outlined above. But it seems reasonable to say that to do so would result in an evaluation based on insufficient data and therefore an invalid one. It is the expectation of the staff that data of the above five classes will be forthcoming as the study develops. A good beginning on most of them is under way.

Numerous attacks on the first item, on statements of purpose, have been made. See, for example: the proceedings of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research for 1937, 1938, 1939 as reported in the *Southern Association Quarterly;* "The Southern Association Study in Secondary Schools and Colleges," *Educational Method,* March, 1941; and "The Southern Association Study," *The North Central Association Quarterly,* April, 1942. The most complete statement of the purpose of the

[2] So far as the staff is able to judge, the ideas concerning the nature of adequate evaluation expressed here are not in accord with the evaluative practices of other co-operative experimental studies, but they should find support among many who are critical of current practices. John Dewey, in "The Sources of a Science of Education," points out the need "for a functional combination of the outlook of evaluation and the method of scientific measurement conceived in a much broader sense than is apparent in ordinary tests and experimentation." Clifford Woody, writing in the *Journal of Educational Research,* March, 1942, translates Dewey's general criticism into specifics. In commenting on the work of the Evaluation Committee of the Eight Year Study, he says, they ". . . are applying the same technique employed by those who developed the standardized achievement tests. The only difference in the two groups of workers is in the type of values being measured. Instead of measuring mechanical processes of arithmetic or reading, as was done by the pioneers of the testing movement, the test makers of the Progressive Education Association are attempting to measure co-operation, planning, social sensitivity, or interests. They are using the same statistical techniques, the same formulae for standardization and interpretation. In most cases they are attempting to develop instruments of measurement in the abstract divorced from purpose or from the activities of group living. They stress end points of achievement rather than the process of achieving. They emphasize isolated elements of behavior rather than an element in relation to the behavior of the organism as a whole."

study and of the assumptions underlying it are to be found in the monograph, "The Southern Association Study."[3] This monograph also attempts to portray the role that the staff has played in the study up to and including the summer of 1941. (Item 2, above).

Participants in the study have been encouraged to keep records of what the schools and teachers within the schools have done as members of the study. (Item 3, above.) In the fall of 1940, the schools were asked to organize these records into a report of their work up to that time. These reports include statements of things they did, reasons for doing them, illustrations of activities in which they engaged, products of their work, indications of successes and failures, and tentative next steps in their programs. Since 1940, several schools have kept their records up to date by means of an annual report to the director. In the spring of 1942, all schools were asked to bring the accounts of their work up to date and staff members have been assisting in preparing these reports.

Evidence of the effects of changes on the school and community (Item 4, above) is gradually accumulating. The application of critical thinking to the problems of improving the schools, which has been encouraged by the staff, has insured that this would be true. Getting evidence of the effect of change and replanning in the light of this evidence has been an integral part of the process of improvement. A school which makes an intelligent effort to increase its holding power will collect evidence of the success it is having. A school which plans changes in its program out of a desire to make immediate improvement in the community will look to the outcomes of its efforts. A school which undertakes to prepare students for college better than has been done in the past wants information on success. Collecting evidence of success and failure is an essential procedure in intelligent problem-solving. Thus a considerable body of evidence concerning the effects of change is at hand. Samples of these data were summarized in Chapter III of the monograph, "The Southern Association Study." During the past few months, members of the staff have been engaged in helping the schools organize and systematize other such data and to collect evidence where it has been neglected.

Out of the recent work done in connection with Item 3 and Item 4 above (the changes being made and the effects of these changes) it has been planned during 1942 to bring out reports on the work in a number of schools where the programs, for one reason or another, have matured at a faster rate than have those in other schools. Such reports are in preparation by approximately 15 of the schools. (It is expected that similar reports on the other schools will be prepared as the work develops.)

The account from each school will include: (1) A chronological story of the development of the program in the school. This story will attempt to show the changes that had been made, how they were made, and the reasons for making them. (2) Evidence of the outcomes now observable from these changes; that is, evidence of the extent to which their purposes are being achieved. Whether these purposes be better preparation for college, immediate community improvement, development of the personality of pupils, more practice for living in a democracy, better holding power, or others, it is planned that evidence of the changes relevant to the stated purposes and observable at the present time will be presented. These reports should not only furnish further data from which one may pass judgment on the study, but also be helpful to other schools that may desire to undertake improvement.

Another project which was initiated in the spring of 1942 will also furnish materials related to Item 3 and Item 4. This involves intensive work on the part of the staff with a number of teachers in the preparation of reports on changes in their own teaching. These reports will give detailed accounts of the developments in the teaching of these persons. They will include descriptions of changes made, the reasons for making them, and the outcomes in terms of pupil- and teacher-growth. Such reports will furnish materials from which one can judge the contribution of the study to the growth of teachers.

Evidence of the influences of the Southern

[3] Frank C. Jenkins and others, "The Southern Association Study." Commission on Curricular and Research of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Nashville, Tenn., 1941.

Association Study on other schools and communities (Item 5, above) has been too little emphasized in the work to date. However, in a developmental study which has as its purpose "better meeting the needs of Southern youth," such evidence constitutes essential data for evaluation. Actually, the normal extensions of the study, the work with 14 co-operating higher institutions engaged in teacher education, with several county and state groups, the supervision of field work on the part of some 30 fellows, the co-operative work with the Higher Education Work-Conference, with the Commission on Teacher Education, and with the Negro Secondary School Study, have undoubtedly influenced education in the region. Perhaps, too, the literature from the study and from the schools participating, some one hundred titles in all, has had some effect. Evidences relating to all this work must be presented. Raw data from which to make reports are at hand but to date time has not been available to prepare them.

In concluding this report on evaluation in the study, it seems appropriate to comment on what might appear to some to be a "piecemeal" method of reporting on the work. The Southern Association Study is a developmental study. Rather than being "blueprinted" from the beginning, a broad purpose was set up with the expectation that specific purposes, objectives, and activities would evolve out of the pursuit of this larger purpose. Nor can a terminal date for completion of the study properly be assigned. The schools and school people with whom the study has worked will continue in the region, to the extent that the study has succeeded they will continue to try to improve, and as help is needed they will seek it wherever it may be found. The closing of the study can mean only that support from one agency through which the participating schools and school people have sought help has been withdrawn.

To be consistent with such a study, evaluation reports would not be preplanned, "blueprinted," from the beginning either. Nor would they be presented as a "culminating activity." Rather, as need arose, as demands from within or without the study seemed to require, reports would be prepared, data would be presented. This would be done with the expectation that the composite of these data would constitute the materials upon the basis of which those who would undertake serious evaluation of the study could pass judgment.

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FIESTAS IN MISSOURI

THE teachers colleges in Missouri held a series of Pan-American Fiesta-Institutes in November. The college at Cape Girardeau presented the first one on November 4. The goal for the day was an increased knowledge of the other Americas. Through the co-operation of the AAA of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, 50 valuable exhibits of the products of Latin America were displayed in the show windows of local merchants. Many of these products are essential to war industries.

The fiesta started with a flag-raising ceremony held out-of-doors. Twenty-one girl students were dressed to represent the member nations of the Pan American Union. Their escorts bore large flags of the nations, while the band played the anthems. Following this Señor Manuel Girón Cerna, a Guatemalan who is a member of the U. S. Maritime Commission, spoke in the college auditorium. Other events of the day included a talk by the president of the Missouri Federated Women's Clubs, Mrs. Ruth Kelso Renfrow, who outlined the three-year plan of that group for the improvement of understanding and good-will among the Americas; colored movies of Mexico; Latin-American music illustrated by a girls' sextet, piano, records, and the singing and dancing of our scholarship student from Panama City, Miss Judith Guevara; a review of fiesta in November; folk dancing on the plaza in front of the college; a tea featuring "mate," the South American beverage; and a dinner in the evening arranged for business men and women who were unable to share in the activities during the day. Señor Girón Cerna spoke at the dinner.

Many townspeople attended the various programs; college, high-school, and grade-school students seemed genuinely interested; members of women's clubs of southeast Missouri came from the district, and the opinion of all groups

was that the fiesta provided a worthy beginning for a movement to acquaint the citizens of our state with our neighbor republics. Later in the month a Pan-American Club was formed in Cape Girardeau to begin a serious study of all the Americas.

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Research . . .

SCHOOL MARKS *VS.* MENTAL TESTS IN RATING SECONDARY SCHOOLS; A SECOND STUDY

ONE of the commonest faults with investigations in the field of educational personnel is the fact that the conclusions, even though theoretically reliable, are not checked by actual follow-up studies. This paper reports a second follow-up study of the question as to the relative value of two bases for rating secondary schools: the school marks and the intelligence-test scores of their graduates.[1] Data on a comparable basis are now available for a period of 19 years, from 1923 to 1941, during which time the Ohio State University Psychological Examination has been administered to entrants to the College of Arts and Sciences, Oberlin College. The test scores have been handled in terms of local centiles. Secondary-school marks have all been equated by a system of "credit points" which has been employed in the Office of Admissions, whereby adjustments are made to equalize the different passing standards. College scholarship has been computed in terms of the relative rank in the first semester of the freshman year.

The first study, reported in 1934, was concerned with all the schools, each of which had sent at least 10 students to Oberlin during the 12-year period. The total number from these schools was 1,530. By 1937, the number of students from these 61 schools had risen to 1,829; by 1939 to 2,009; and by 1941, to 2,168 (Groups K to N, Table 1). During the years since 1923, the number of schools sending a minimum of 10 students has risen from 61 to 119. This minimum was originally chosen because with any higher figure the number of schools that might be compared would have been too small to give the investigation any significance. Even for the 19-year period there have been only 28 schools that have sent as many as 25 students or more apiece. The 6,682 freshmen have come from 1,901 different secondary schools (including 74 in foreign countries). The average size of the freshman class since 1923 has been 352. As a class of this size is ordinarily selected from perhaps twice as many applicants, and since the number from any one school is usually rather small, it is important to discover the best possible basis for evaluating the work of the individual school. Interest is then focused upon the school rather than upon the individual students. Hence the correlations have been computed between (1) the mean college scholarship, (2) mean test intelligence, and (3) the mean secondary-school scholarship of the groups of students from each school. These correlations are reported in Table I, with the (a) total and mean populations, and (b) the number of schools in each group.

Comparison of the correlation figures previously reported (Groups A, B, E, and G) with those for the larger groups corroborates the earlier findings, to wit:

1. No significant relationship is found to exist between mean high-school scholarship and mean college scholarship. For the original 61 schools (Group A) the r is .192; with the number of schools nearly doubled, Group D, the r is but .138. Moreover, even when only the original 61 schools are considered, the accumulation of more data, which involves an increase in students from 1,530 to 2,168, lowers rather than raises the correlation. From .192 it drops to .164 (Groups K and N). This same trend toward lower correlations is found when schools are selected on the basis of higher minima. Comparison of Groups E and F, with minima of 15, shows a decrease in the coefficient from .174 to .037. Comparison of Groups G, H, and I, with minima of 20, reveals a progressive drop from .319 to .194.

(1) The report made in 1937 suggested that the employment of larger minima would raise

[1] Hartson, L. D., "Comparison of the Intellectual Output of Sixty-One Secondary Schools," *Bulletin* 101, Ohio College Association, Columbus, 1934; also, "Relative Value of School Marks and Intelligence Tests as Bases for Rating Secondary Schools," SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, 49: 354–356, 1939.

the correlation between mean high-school scholarship and college scholarship. The addition of more cases does not, however, substantiate this probability. In fact, the present evidence tends to discredit that expectation to some extent, for, whereas the 1937 data showed a coefficient of .319 for schools with minima of 20 and but .096 for schools with minima of 10, the more inclusive data show comparable coefficients of .194 and .138, an inconsequential difference. Schools with minima of 25 show a coefficient of .211, which is not significantly higher.

2. Again, no significant relationship has been found to hold between mean high-school scholarship and mean test intelligence. Increasing the number of schools from 61 to 119, with minima of 10 students, has resulted in a decrease in the correlation from .148 to .101, and increasing the number of students from 1,530 to 2,168 from the original 61 schools has changed the correlation only by the small difference between .148 and .174.

(1) Increases in the minima progressively from 10 to 15, 20 and 25 have resulted in the slight changes represented by coefficients of .101, .091, .185 and .226.

3. In marked contrast to these very low correlation figures, there exists a substantial relationship between mean test intelligence and mean college scholarship. The coefficients obtained for the larger number of schools do not differ materially from those reported earlier, most of them remaining in the neighborhood of .70. Since this figure is higher than that which prevails for the entire freshman class taken as individuals, it is to be expected that the trend will be downward, as the proportion of students involved more nearly approximates the total student body. This is most evident in the case of the schools sending minima of 15 and 20, where the coefficients have dropped from .729 to .655, and from .734 to .674. It is also apparent with the 61 original schools, where with an increase in number of students the coefficient has dropped from .706 to .666. With all the groups, however, the correlation between mean test intelligence and mean scholarship is found to be higher than the figure obtained for individuals, as the average figure for these 19 years is but .569.

Data with reference to means in test intelligence and scholarship (Table II), for the different sized groups, reveal two additional facts of some interest: (1) The students attracted to Oberlin in more recent years come with higher high-school grade averages than was true in the earlier years of this study. This is suggested by comparing the high-school scholarship means of groups A, B, C, and D, which show an increase from 68.6 to 74.3. The C.R. of the difference between Groups A and D (when the sigmas are computed from the school averages) is 4.71. Inasmuch as Group D includes Group A, the contrast between later and earlier accessions is actually greater than is indicated by Table II. In fact, the mean high-school scholarship for

TABLE I

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN (1) MEAN COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIP, (2) MEAN SECONDARY-SCHOOL SCHOLARSHIP, AND (3) MEAN TEST INTELLIGENCE OF VARIOUS GROUPS

	Students			N.	Correlations					
	Minimum	Total	M.	Schools	r_{12}	P.E.	r_{23}	P.E.	r_{13}	P.E.
A—1923–34	10	1530	25.1	61	.192	.083	.148	.084	.706	.043
B—1923–37	10	2116	24.6	86	.096	.072	−.002	.073	.716	.035
C—1923–39	10	2525	24.5	103	.048	.066	.022	.066	.690	.035
D—1923–41	10	2917	24.5	119	.138	.061	.101	.061	.690	.032
E—1923–37	15	1591	38.8	41	.174	.102	.132	.103	.729	.049
F—1923–41	15	2280	35.6	64	.037	.084	.091	.084	.655	.048
G—1923–37	20	1361	50.4	27	.319	.117	.246	.122	.734	.060
H—1923–39	20	1581	51.0	31	.275	.112	.307	.110	.691	.063
I—1923–41	20	1817	50.5	36	.194	.108	.185	.109	.674	.061
J—1923–41	25	1644	58.7	28	.211	.122	.226	.121	.702	.065
K—1923–34	10	1530	25.1	61	.192	.083	.148	.084	.706	.043
L—1923–37	10	1829	30.0	61	.219	.082	.129	.085	.721	.041
M—1923–39	10	2009	32.9	61	.172	.084	.180	.084	.702	.044
N—1923–41	10	2168	35.5	61	.164	.084	.174	.084	.666	.048

the 638 students received as freshmen during the period, 1935 to 1941, in terms of credit points, is 80.4, which indicates a very substantial increase over the 68.6 of the earlier years. This would seem to indicate a remarkable rise in the scholastic quality of the students. However, as there is no corresponding rise in the grades received in college, it may indicate either increasing leniency in high-school grading standards, or a stiffening of the college standards.

(2) Students from larger schools make better college records. That larger schools have, on the average, sent somewhat better students is indicated by their college scholarship. To be sure, it might be misleading to draw such an inference directly from the data of Table II, since the larger numbers do not necessarily come from the larger schools. However, when the correlation is computed between the size of the senior class and the mean college-scholarship record of the students sent to Oberlin from the 106 high schools (private schools having been excluded) which have sent a minimum of 10 students, the coefficient is found to be .323 $\pm$ .063. The correlation between size of class and test intelligence is positive (.203 $\pm$ .059) but is so low as to lack any significance. However, there is absolutely no correlation between size of class and mean high-school scholarship, the coefficient being – .007.

Earlier reports suggested the possibility of classifying the high schools into seven types on the basis of the school's record in the three variables: high-school scholarship, test intelligence, and college scholarship. How stable is such a classification? For five of the seven groups the prediction has been nearly 100-per-cent perfect, as 48 of the 50 schools have remained in the original grouping. At the time of the 1939 report, 18 schools were labeled "lenient graders" for the reason that their rank order among the 86 schools was at least 20 places (or approximately 1 AD) higher than their rank in either test intelligence or college scholarship. Only one of these schools would not be similarly classified today (the differential now employed being 30 rank points for the 119 schools), and this school failed to meet the criterion by but 3 points. Likewise in the group labeled "stiff graders" there are but two of the 19 schools which fail to show a differential of 30 rank points between rank in high-school scholarship and the other two ranks, and in these cases the differential is 20 and 22 respectively. All the schools originally placed in three other groups: (a) "low-achievement" group (relatively high both in test intelligence and high-school scholarship but low in college scholarship), (b) in a "high-achievement" group (whose record both in high school and in college has been appreciably better than one might have anticipated from test scores alone), and (c) in the group whose college achievement was distinctly better than either their test intelligence or their high-school record, would be similarly classified today. Changes in classification have occurred

TABLE II

MEANS AND SIGMAS FOR (1) COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIP, (2) SECONDARY-SCHOOL SCHOLARSHIP, AND (3) TEST INTELLIGENCE

	Minimum Students	No. of Schools	College Scholarship		High School Scholarship		Intelligence Test Centiles	
			M.	σ	M.	σ	M.	σ
A—1923–34	10	61	53.8	10.5	68.6	7.8	56.5	8.9
B—1923–37	10	86	53.8	9.7	70.9	7.1	55.5	8.9
C—1923–39	10	103	53.5	9.1	72.6	7.3	55.2	9.2
D—1923–41	10	119	53.8	9.3	74.3	7.5	54.7	8.7
E—1923–37	15	41	55.6	8.0	70.2	6.9	56.9	8.6
F—1923–41	15	64	54.2	8.6	71.9	6.3	55.4	8.4
G—1923–37	20	27	57.1	8.2	70.5	7.4	58.8	7.3
H—1923–39	20	31	57.0	7.3	70.8	7.0	58.3	7.3
I—1923–41	20	36	56.3	7.0	71.3	6.6	57.1	7.2
J—1923–41	25	28	56.9	7.5	71.5	6.9	58.0	6.9
K—1923–34	10	61	53.8	10.5	68.6	7.8	56.5	8.9
L—1923–37	10	61	54.1	10.3	70.2	7.1	56.0	8.5
M—1923–39	10	61	54.2	9.5	70.8	6.9	55.8	8.6
N—1923–41	10	61	54.2	9.5	71.7	6.8	55.4	8.3

most frequently in the types which earlier showed fair agreement in rank order in each of the three categories. Sixty per cent of this group fail to meet the new criterion of consistency and shift in the direction of one of the other categories.

In classifying the present list of 119 schools, it is possible to eliminate one of the small groups by attaching these schools to one of the larger groups which they most nearly approximate. Thus there remain six groups. These are listed below, with the numbers of schools which fully qualify according to the criterion, followed in parentheses by the numbers which fall short of the criterion by small margins. In fact, only one of the 25 would fail to qualify if the differential were 20 instead of 30 rank points:

1)	Consistent record group:	30 (2)
2)	Lenient graders:	26 (3)
3)	Stiff graders:	22 (8)
4)	Poorly motivated group:	4 (5)
5)	Low-achievement group:	6 (5)
6)	High-achievement group:	6 (2)

SUMMARY

(1) Accumulation of additional data corroborates earlier findings to the effect that a secondary school's standing, as determined by the average college record of the students it sends to Oberlin College, cannot be predicted from their secondary-school grades. The typical correlation figure is not over .20.

(2) On the other hand, intelligence as measured by the Ohio State University Examination does give a rather fair basis for judging the school's scholastic output, for the correlation between mean test intelligence and mean scholarship is in the neighborhood of .70.

The data also show that (3) the students coming to Oberlin in recent years present records of higher scholastic grades than was the case in the earlier years covered by this study.

(4) Students from the larger schools are making slightly better college records than those from smaller schools.

(5) Earlier evidence is corroborated as to the possibility of classifying the schools on the basis of their grading tendencies and the achievement records of their students.

L. D. HARTSON

OBERLIN COLLEGE

RECENT *Publications*

ANDERSON, HOWARD R. (editor). "Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social Studies." Thirteenth *Yearbook* of the National Council for the Social Studies. Pp. ix + 175. Washington: NEA. 1942. $2.00, paper cover; $2.30, cloth; quantity rates.

Including "The Nature and Purpose of Critical Thinking in the Social Studies," Frederick George Marcham; "Methods and Materials for Developing Skill in Critical Thinking," Elmer Ellis; "Developing Skill in Critical Thinking through Participation in School and Community Life," Howard E. Wilson; "The Evaluation of Critical Thinking," Hilda Taba.

BABCOCK, CHESTER D., EBER JEFFERY, and ARCHIE W. TROELSTRUP. "Paying for the War"—A Resource Unit for Teachers of the Social Studies. The National Council for the Social Studies *Bulletin*, No. 18. Pp. 69. Washington: NEA. 1942. 30¢; quantity rates.

The purpose of this Resource Unit is to provide not only a background of content material for teachers but also a reservoir of learning activities, suggested generalizations and concepts to be acquired, and extensive lists of materials for pupils and teachers, including reading references, films, and transcribed radio programs.

BOHMAN, ESTHER L., and JOSEPHINE DILLON. *The Librarian and the Teacher of Music* (Experimenting Together). Pp. 55. American Library Association, Chicago. 1942. 75¢.

Report of an experiment at Mount Auburn Elementary School in Cleveland, including "Fundamentals of a Co-operative Program," "The Library and the Music Curriculum," "Music in Experience," "The Voluntary Aspect," "What Library Skills and Why," Development of Attitudes."

BRADY, ROBERT A. *Business as a System of Power.* Pp. xx + 340. Columbia University Press. 1943. $3.00.

Dr. Brady presents amazing facts and disturbing parallels in the field of business for the complacent liberal and the well-meaning conservative, as well as much solid meat for the scholar.

BROWN, INA CORINNE. "Socio-Economic Approach to Educational Problems." *National Survey of the Higher Education of Negroes,* Misc. No. 6, Vol. 1. U. S. Office of Education. Pp. xii + 166. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1942. 40¢.

The report of this study will appear in three volumes and one leaflet, the last summarizing the principal findings and recommendations. The present volume presents a systematic analysis of a vast amount of information, both historical and current, which is basic to the question of adequate opportunity for the higher education of Negroes.

EBENSTEIN, WILLIAM. *The Nazi State.* Pp. xi + 355. Farrar and Rinehart, Inc. 1943. Trade, $2.75; college edition, $2.00.

Including "The Fundamentals of Nazi Politics," "The Structure of the National Government," "State and Local Government," "The Nazi Party," "Law and Justice," "Prapaganda and Public Opinion," "The Control of Art and Literature," "Education," "Training for Leadership," "Religion," "The Economy of Permanent War," "The Position of Labor,"

"Foreign Policy and the New Order." Generously indexed.

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Education for the Air Age—Report of Study Conference. Pp. 192. Published by the University of the State of New York, Albany. 1942.
A conference held at the New York State College for Teachers, Albany, June 22–27, 1942, with the primary purpose of providing teachers of teachers and supervisors of teachers with expert counseling and advice in the field of aviation education.

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HEAPS, WILLARD A. *Book Selection for Secondary School Libraries.* Pp. 335. H. W. Wilson Company. 1942. $2.50.

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HEMLEBEN, SYLVESTER JOHN. *Plans for World Peace through Six Centuries.* Pp. xiv + 227. The University of Chicago Press. 1943. $2.50.
The idea of a world organization to outlaw war is not new. This book is a concise and clear portrayal of peace projects from the early 14th century to the formation of the League of Nations.

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HUBBELL, RICHARD W. *4000 Years of Television*—The Story of Seeing at a Distance. Pp. xvi + 256. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1942. $2.25.
A history of the development of television.

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LEÃO, A. CARNEIR. *Planejar e Agir* (*Planning and Action*). Pp. 227. Jornal Do Commercio—Rodrigues and C.—Av. Rio Branci, 117, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. 1942.

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A List of U. S. War Information Films. Pp. 20. Office of War Information, Bureau of Motion Pictures, Washington. November, 1942.

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MELINAT, CARL H. "U. S. Government Publications and the War"—A Selected List. *The Booklist* (Vol. 39, No. 7). Part 2. Pp. 153–175. American Library Association, 520 North Michigan Ave., Chicago. 1942. 25¢; quantity rates.

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MORLEY, LINDA H. (prepared by). *Contribution toward a Special Library Glossary.* Pp. 17. Prepared for the ALA Committee on Library Terminology and published by Special Libraries Association, 31 East 10th St., New York. Mimeographed. 1943. 35¢ plus postage; quantity rates.

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Physical Fitness through Physical Education for the Victory Corps (Victory Corps Series Pamphlet No. 2). U. S. Office of Education. Pp. vi + 102. Illustrated. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1942. 25¢.
Prepared by a committee appointed by the U. S. Commissioner of Education in collaboration with the Army, the Navy, the Public Health Service, and the Physical Fitness Division of the Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services, this bulletin is offered as a guide to high-school principals and teachers in planning and executing wartime programs of physical education. It is intended for use with all five divisions of the High-School Victory Corps.

•

Problems in American Life. Unit No. 6: "Democracy vs. Dictatorship"—Teaching American Youth to Understand Their Own and the Enemy's Ways of Life. Analysis by T. V. Smith and Glenn Negley; teaching aids by Robert N. Bush. Pp. 69. Unit No. 7: "The American Family"—The Problems of Family Relations Facing American Youth. Analysis by Ernest W. Burgess; teaching aids by Joseph C. Baumgartner. Pp. 56. Unit No. 8: "Agriculture"—Teaching Youth about the Problems of the Farmer and Rural America. Analysis by Chris L. Christensen and Noble Clark; teaching aids by Royce H. Knapp. Pp. 52. Unit No. 9: "Crime"—The Causes and Extent of Criminal Behavior, Its Prevention and Treatment. Analysis by Thorsten Sellin; teaching aids by Paul R. Busey. Pp. 64. Unit No. 10: "Economic Problems of the Post-War World"—Democratic Planning for Full Employment. Analysis by Alvin H. Hansen; teaching aids by Laurence E. Leamer. Pp. 64. Published under joint sponsorship of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies, NEA, Washington. 1942. 30¢ each.

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"Redirection of the School Program in Wartime." Maryland School *Bulletin*, Vol. XXIV, No. 2. Pp. 149. State Department of Education, Baltimore. 1942. 60¢.
Attempts to offer practical suggestions for making effective in the Maryland school program "for the duration" what have been called by the Educational Policies Commission the "educational priorities," consisting of stated groups of activities, which, according to the commission, should be given "absolute and immediate priority in time, attention, personnel, and funds over any and all other activities," care being taken at the same time to maintain essential school services at their present level of efficiency. Merle S. Bateman has assumed the responsibility of the editing of the bulletin.

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SHIEBLER, HOWARD A. (compiler and editor). "All the Children." Forty-Third *Report* of the Superintendent of Schools (John E. Wade), City of New York. Pp. 88. Illustrated. Board of Education, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn. 1942.

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"A Source Book of Mathematical Applications." Seventeenth *Yearbook*, The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. Pp. xvi + 291. Illustrated. Compiled by a committee of the council and published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1942. $2.00.
A reference book for teachers of the mathematics usually offered in grades 7 through 12. The volume may also prove useful to students in teacher-training institutions and to others who are interested in discovering how the principles of mathematics are being employed in solving the world's problems.

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TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "The Use of Test Results in Diagnosis and Instruction in the Tool Subjects." *Educational Records Bulletin* No. 18 (revised). Pp. vii + 80. Educational Records Bureau, 437 West 59th St., New York City. 1942.
Subdivided into "General Considerations in the Use of Test Results," "Suggestions for Diagnosis and Remedial Teaching in the Tool Subjects," "Bibliography on Diagnosis and Instruction in the Tool Subjects."

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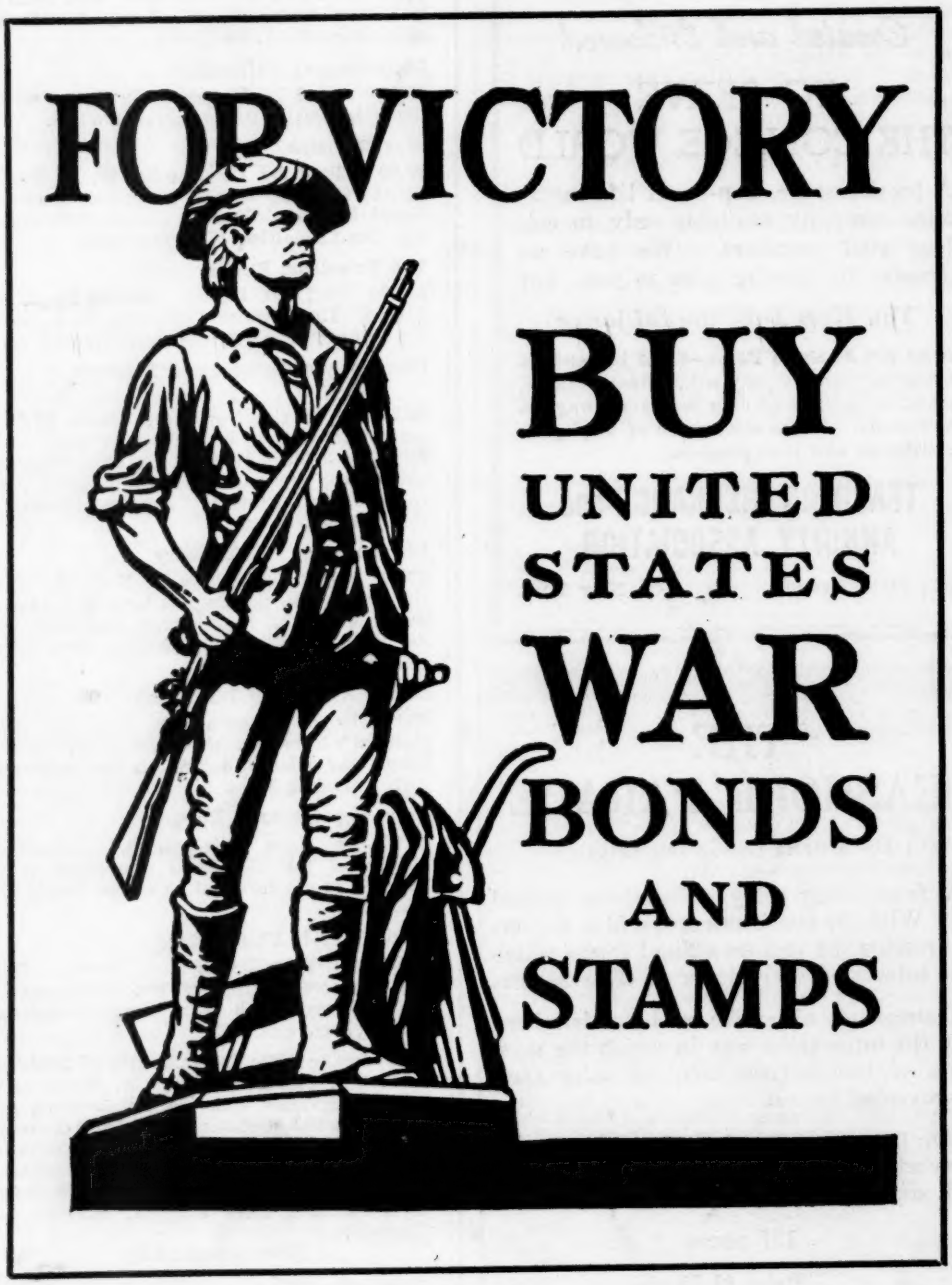
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